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ABSTRACT

This monograph is intended to help the operators and planners of employment and training programs, particularly those sponsored under the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA), in developing and providing supportive services to improve client employability. The first section, presenting the purpose of this publication, is followed by a section briefly covering the history of supportive services in employment and training programming, and the implications for present-day programs. Section 3 describes nine individual supportive services, opportunities and constraints that each raises, and examples. The services covered are counseling, orientation, educational services, transportation, physical health services, mental health services, child care services, legal and bonding services, and use of local petty cash funds. Section 4 presents four different models that could be followed in providing supportive services. The fifth section discusses six elements in a supportive service plan, including identification and description of potential clients, determining unmet client needs, and setting priorities among unmet needs. A summary of the conclusions is presented in the last section. (EM)

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Supportive Services: CETA Program Models

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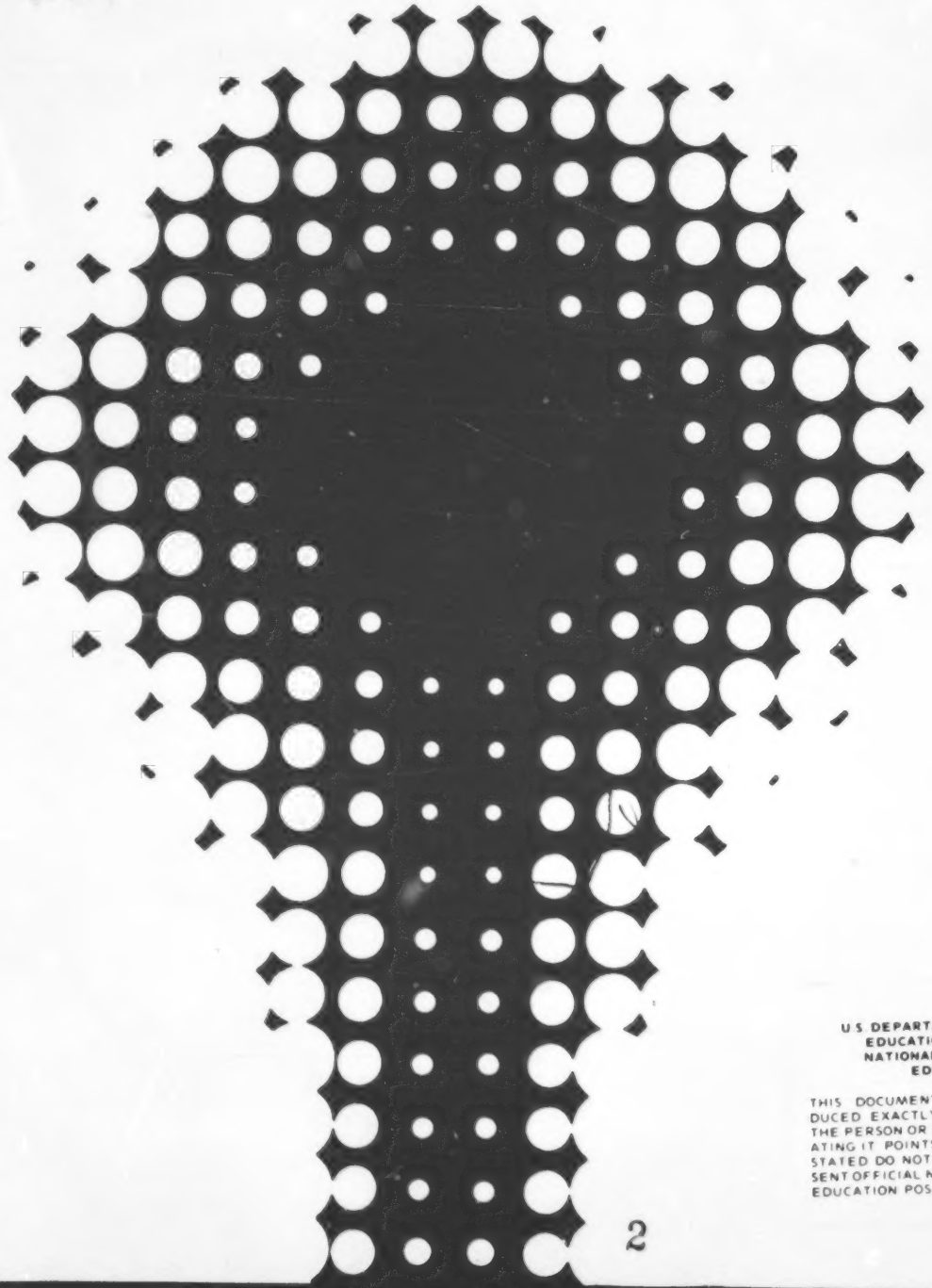

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Supportive Services: CETA Program Models

U.S. Department of Labor
Ray Marshall, Secretary

Employment and Training Administration
Ernest G. Green
Assistant Secretary for Employment and Training
1978

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SPECIAL NOTE

This monograph is one of a series entitled *CETA Program Models* prepared for the Employment and Training Administration's Office of Community Employment Programs, with financial support by the Office of Research and Development. The series, on program activities and services, was prepared under contract number 81-11-71-09 with the National Council on Employment Policy and edited by Garth Mangum of the University of Utah.

The monographs being issued or prepared for publication are *On-the-Job Training* by James Bromley and Larry Wardle; *Job Development and Placement* by Miriam Johnson and Marged Sugarman; *Classroom Training--The OIC Approach* by Calvin Pressley and James McGraw; *Supportive Services* by Susan Turner and Carolyn Conrades; *Intake and Assessment* by Lee Bruno; *Work Experience Perspectives* by Marion Pines and James Morlock; and *Public Service Employment* by Ray Corpuz. Others may be added as circumstances warrant.

The authors, experienced employment and training program operators themselves, review the purposes and means of carrying out CETA functions and comment on methods they have found useful in conducting programs and avoiding pitfalls. The series is commended not only to program operators and their staffs, but also to community groups and other employment and training services professionals in the hope that this information will enable more people to learn about CETA programs, stimulate new ideas, and contribute to improving the quality of employment and training programs.

The series should not be regarded as official policy or requirements of the U.S. Department of Labor. Although every effort has been made to assure that the information is consistent with present regulations, prime sponsors are urged to consult current regulations before adopting changes the authors may advocate. The authors are solely responsible for the content.

Another series of use to CETA prime sponsors and their staffs is *CETA Title VI Project Description Reports*. There are two volumes in this series. The first monograph was prepared by MDC, Inc., Chapel Hill, N.C., under contract number 82-37-71-47. The second volume was prepared by ETA with assistance from prime sponsors, regional offices, and a private contractor.

Copies of other titles in these series may be obtained from:

Office of Community Employment Programs
Employment and Training Administration
U.S. Department of Labor
601 D Street, NW.
Washington, D.C. 20213

Reader comments and suggestions are welcomed and may be sent to the above address.

PREFACE

The purpose of this monograph is to review the experience of categorical programs in developing and providing supportive services to improve client employability. The goal of employment and training programs is to place participants in unsubsidized jobs, and the primary means of attaining that goal is skill training (institutional or on-the-job). All other activities, including educational services, are considered secondary and supportive in nature. Hence supportive services are defined in this monograph as temporary assistance activities that permit the participation and retention of program clients in employment or employment development activities.

The supportive services selected for discussion in the monograph are counseling, program and employment orientation, educational services, transportation, child care, physical and mental health services, legal and bonding services, and use of petty cash funds.

In the discussions of these services, the authors provide examples of the experiences of program operators in the development and implementation of these services and their general outcomes. Throughout the discussions, the authors develop the theme that leads to their primary conclusion: Supportive services should be provided only if it can be demonstrated that the services will lead to employment. In addition, the authors' bias is toward those supportive services that directly assist a client to obtain immediate employment. "Immediate," in this context, is used to distinguish problems amenable to quick resolution from those involving a number of factors, including motivation, that must be taken care of before the client can profit from training or placement activities.

In an effort to assist program planners and operators in planning, developing, and delivering supportive services, the monograph identifies selected elements in planning and describes composite models that can serve as the policy and operational base for these activities.

The discussion of elements in a supportive service plan is descriptive in nature and suggests a frame of reference in which to consider the planning issues that arise. The elements discussed are:

- The universe of potential clients who may require supportive services.
- Assessment of available resources.
- Determination of current unmet client needs.
- Determination of the feasibility of developing resources to meet the unmet needs (funding considerations).
- Setting the priorities among the unmet needs.
- Determination of service levels.

Four variations in composite models for the delivery of supportive services are delineated:

1. No provision for supportive services.
2. Provision of supportive services through interagency agreements.
3. Subcontracting for the supportive services; separation of the supportive service function from the employment and training functions.
4. Provision of supportive services by the deliverers of the employment and training services.

For each model, the administrative and operational advantages and disadvantages are discussed. However, the authors do not intend that these discussions be interpreted as "recipes" for success in choosing, planning for, and implementing supportive services. The planners of each program must choose the services to be provuded on the basis of the characteristics of the known and potential clients in the program operator's geographic area, the resources available for program orientation, the condition of the local labor market, and the guidelines for program operation.

In presenting this discussion, the authors draw on many years of diverse experience in the employment and training field. During more than 7 years with the Michigan Employment Security Commission, Susan Turner was a Work Incentive (WIN) Program planner, placement supervisor, management analyst, counseling supervisor, and employment counselor. She later directed the operation of a full-service CETA subcontract.

As a senior research analyst with Olympus Research Corporation, she assisted in planning and directing several nationwide studies, including *An Assessment of Vocational Education Programs Designed for the Disadvantaged* and *A Study of the Coordination Linkages Between CETA Prime Sponsors and HEW-Funded Programs.* She is presently the employment and training specialist for activities being carried out by Oakland University under an institutional grant from the U.S. Department of Labor.

Corolyn Conradus' 10 years of experience in public sector human services includes planning, administration, and direct service delivery. With the California Department of Human Resources Development, she developed and carried out a caseload management system to evaluate and control the flow of clients through the WIN Program and was responsible for negotiating and monitoring subcontracts for training and supportive services.

As a program consultant under contract with the Department of Labor, Ms. Conradus conducted WIN Program reviews in several States, developed model program components, and trained State and local staffs in planning, procedures, and delivery systems. As a freelance consultant, she is currently developing baseline data for social and economic impact studies projecting changes in demography, social infrastructure, housing, and employment related to offshore oil exploration and production.

CONTENTS

	Page
Special Note	ii
Preface	iii
1. Purpose of the Monograph	1
Roster of Supportive Services	1
Structure of the Monograph	2
2. The History and Development of Supportive Services	3
Categorical Programs	3
Community-Based Programs	4
Programs in Support of Employment and Training Programs	4
CETA and Supportive Services	5
Supportive Services and "Employability"	5
A Note About the Literature	6
3. Survey of Selected Supportive Services	9
Counseling	9
Orientation	11
Educational Services	13
Transportation	14
Physical Health Services	15
Mental Health Services	16
Child-Care Services	16
Legal and Bonding Services	17
Use of Local Petty Cash Funds	17
4. Model Variations	19
One: No Provision for Supportive Services	19
Two: Provision of Supportive Services Through Interagency Agreements	19
Three: Subcontracting — Separation From Employment and Training Functions	20
Four: Provision of Services by the Deliverers of Employment and Training Services	20
5. Identification of Selected Elements in Planning	23

Page

Identification and Description of the Universe of Potential Clients Who May Require Supportive Services 23
Identification, Description, and Assessment of Available Resources 24
Determining Unmet Client Needs 24
Determining the Feasibility of Developing Resources to Meet Unmet Needs 25
Setting Priorities Among Unmet Needs 25
Determining Supportive Service Levels 25

6. Summary: Some Conclusions by the Authors 27

Bibliography 29

1. PURPOSE OF THE MONOGRAPH

Shortly after training began under the Manpower Development and Training Act, it became apparent that program objectives were being impeded by client problems that could not be resolved through employment-oriented program components. The efforts of program operators were "complicated and frustrated by the simple inability of clients to read and write with minimal proficiency or perform the simplest arithmetical computations."[1] Many disavantaged clients did not appear to understand their responsibilities in a training or job situation; they did not have the means to get to and from training or job sites, were not able to pass factory physical examinations, could not get bonded, did not have the funds to obtain special equipment needed for employment (e.g., tools and work shoes), did not have adequate child care arrangements, and, in general, did not have the resources to remedy those problems that appeared to preclude successful participation in skill training and subsequent employment.

This monograph is an attempt to synthesize the experiences of program operators in providing those individualized, ancilliary services (supportive services) that seek to alleviate the immediate problems of employment and training program clients. The monograph provides today's program operators with a frame of reference in order to:

1. Define issues relevant to supportive services and their impact on employment and training programming.
2. Assess the need for supportive services in relation to the client population served and to the goals and objectives established for the program.
3. Develop strategies for planning and implementing supportive services to meet the defined need.

Because of the great variation in types of supportive services, this monograph does not attempt to detail how to set up and operate individual services, but rather focuses on selected issues that should be examined before developing these services.

Roster of Supportive Services

A wide variety of activities could be described as supportive services, but the monograph is limited to:

- Counseling, with the counselor as client-advocate (excluding counseling services provided as a regular part of intake, assessment, and referral).
- Program and employment orientation.
- Educational services, including high school equivalency test preparation, basic literacy, and English as a second language.
- Transportation.
- Child care.
- Physical and mental health services.
- Legal and bonding services.
- Utilization of petty cash funds.

In different programs, at different times, these services may not have been defined as supportive, but rather were viewed as integral employment and training components. For purposes of this paper, however, those services that do not have employment as their direct goal are considered to be supportive in nature and thus are defined as supportive services. For example, when a client who could not obtain desired employment in the clerical field solely because of the lack of a high school diploma was given high school equivalency test preparation, this service was directly related to employment; if, however, the test preparation was preparatory to skill training, which might lead to employment, it was supportive in nature.

This definition of supportive services is consistent with the following definition developed by the Office of Comprehensive Employment Development, Supportive Services Study Team:

> Supportive Services are that broad range of temporary assistance, exclusive of skill training, that permits participation or retention of manpower clients in employment or employment development activities.[2]

The definition is based upon the perspective of the program operator and implicitly asserts that the goal of employment and training programming is the placement of participants in unsubsidized employment. "Skill training, either institutional or on-the-job, is seen as the primary means of attaining that goal. All other activities are secondary, including educational services, and are thus incorporated into this definition of supportive services."[3]

This definition does not assert that these secondary

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[1] Mary F. Davies, and Charles Phillips, *Providing Basic Education for Manpower Program Clients*, R&D Guideposts, Correctional Educators Monograph Series, No. 2 (Washington: U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, August 1971).

[2] Ric Latsch, et. al., "Findings, Conclusions, and Recommendations of the OEDP Supportive Services Study Team," (Washington: U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, June 15, 1973).

[3] Ibid.

activities may not be as important as skill training; indeed, for individual clients and for participating employers, supportive services may be critical. In some cases, the provision of a supportive service is all that a client will need to be job-ready. Similarly, the participating employer is primarily interested in a worker who is reliable; the employer will not be willing to retain and promote an individual who has child care or transportation problems that prevent continuous attendance at the job.

The discussions in this monograph are not intended as "recipes" for success in choosing, planning for, and implementing the several supportive services. Depending upon the characteristics of the known and potential clients in the program operator's geographic area, the resources available for program operation, the condition of the local market, and the guidelines for program operation (promulgated at every level), the program planners must do their own choosing and then evaluate the results of providing supportive services for their own programs.

It is evident that a decision to provide supportive services will affect the planning and implementation of other program activities (for example, intake and assessment and outreach) and, depending upon the levels of support committed to supportive services, will alter expected program outcomes in terms of clients served and subsequently retained in unsubsidized employment.

Structure of the Monograph

This discussion of supportive services has been divided into five sections:

- An abbreviated history of supportive services in employment and training programming and the implications for present-day programs.
- A survey of individual supportive services, the considerations each raises, and examples.
- Identification of the various models that the provision of supportive services could follow.
- Presentation of selected elements in program planning activities.
- Summary of conclusions.

2. THE HISTORY AND DEVELOPMENT OF SUPPORTIVE SERVICES

Original employment and training legislation in 1962 assumed the primary cause of unemployment to be skill obsolescence due to technological change. Retraining could return once skilled and steadily employed workers to new jobs. It was also assumed that the individuals to be assisted had the necessary attributes for employment and were lacking only a salable skill. Thus, the focus of supportive services for these persons was on counseling for occupational choice and perhaps on assistance in relocating to meet local labor market demands. Experience soon demonstrated that a large body of the unemployed were without meaningful work experience or had serious personal handicaps related to illiteracy, inadequate education, poor health, or a variety of personal and attitudinal problems.

The "War on Poverty" between 1964 and 1968 identified as a prime target the "disadvantaged"—those persons who were poor and who had evidenced difficulty in attaching themselves to the labor force. With the emphasis on furnishing employability services to persons who, by definition, had not been able to succeed in the market place and who probably would not succeed without special help, there came the perceived need to arrange for other services in addition to skill training.

Initially the Job Corps, the Work Incentive (WIN) Program, and the Concentrated Employment Program (CEP) were conceived as programs to encourage and pay for the delivery of all necessary services, including those services that could be defined as in support of employment and training programming. Other programs and activities affecting great numbers of people (skill centers, Youth Opportunity Centers, the Neighborhood Youth Corps) also named specific supportive services that were to be provided. However, unlike WIN, CEP, and the Job Corps, specific methods by which supportive services were to be funded were not consistently enumerated. The Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA), seen as the logical extension of the programming of the 1960's, is now coming to grips with the same questions and attempting to arrive at new answers.

Categorical Programs

Job Corps

The Job Corps, at its inception, provided a total living situation for participants. Because of the program's implied parental responsibility and its total involvement with participants' day-to-day lives, the Job Corps was probably the employment and training program that had the most organized and best funded approach to supportive services.

In addition to skill training, Job Corps participants were exposed to intensive individual and group counseling sessions, were encouraged to take courses to prepare them for obtaining high school diplomas or high school equivalency certificates, were provided medical and dental services, and in general, were furnished all those services that affluent parents might supply their teenage children.

Work Incentive (WIN) Program

The WIN Program, directed at assisting people receiving Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) to obtain employment and thus become self-supporting, was viewed by many program operators as the first non-residential attempt to provide sufficient resources to meet the needs of a specified caseload. Program legislation and the resultant guidelines encouraged WIN staff to subcontract for services for individual clients. The type of services that could be purchased was limited only by the imagination of the WIN staff and the rules and regulations promulgated at the state level.

The Welfare Department had been named in the WIN legislation as the deliverer of supportive services and would pay for child care, transportation, and medical services. Through the use of subcontractors and vouchers, the WIN staff could purchase all types of educational services—even individual tutors — repair automobiles, and obtain almost anything that could be assumed to be work or training related.

Concentrated Employment Program (CEP)

In CEP, not only could necessary services be purchased, but the program was also one of the first to be given both the mandate and the funds to develop and provide a coordinated delivery of employability and supportive services at the local level. It was an attempt to give local community groups the autonomy necessary to develop programs designed to meet the particular needs of a specific geographic location. Thus, persons living in high-poverty, low-employment areas were given the opportunity to develop and manage their own programs.

Other Categorical Programs

Skills Centers, developed under MDTA, were specifically designed to add on-site supportive services to skill training activities. Youth Opportunity Centers were Employment Service opportunities offering specific help to meet the needs of youth. Neighborhood Youth Corps programs often added basic education and other ancillary activities to work experience. However, none of these programs provided their staffs with the monies to purchase the ancillary services that were suggested by the legislative provisions. The local staffs, charged with the responsibility for meeting the program conditions, found themselves in the position of not only dealing with clients' employment problems, but also, in effect, becoming purveyors of social work services. "Since there was no budget for the provision of these (supportive) services, they must be 'promoted' or as the enrollees would say, 'hustled'."[4] Special projects were funded for individual Skills Centers or other employment and training facilities that were experimenting with methods and mechanisms for delivering supportive services, but these special projects were just that — "special — and the task of locating and bartering for supportive services for the vast majority of MDTA participants became the responsibility of local line staffs. ("I'll see if I can find your applicant a job, if you can arrange eyeglasses for mine.")

Inter-agency agreements for the provision of supportive services were encouraged and those with major agencies were agreed upon at the highest administrative level. However, mechanisms by which these agreements could be operational were rarely set in place.

Summary

Some federally mandated programs had the funds to purchase necessary supportive services, while others depended upon the ingenuity of staff members for provision of those services. No cross-program studies have been done which compare client success with the availability of supportive services, and it is difficult to make statements about the relative merits of either approach. What can be said is that only a decade or so after the conception of employment and training programming, only WIN and Job Corps remain as directly federally funded, although significantly modified, programs providing as a matter of course a wide variety of ancillary services tailored to the particular needs of the clientele. However, even that has become limited. The WIN Program's focus has been altered away from "developing the client's fullest potential" and "employability development" toward obtaining employment in the shortest time possible with the smallest expenditure of funds.

Community-Based Programs

The time of the "War on Poverty" was also the time of growing awareness on the part of community leaders and community-based organizations that they should be part of this national effort. As public and private funds became more readily available, new organizations were formed and old organizations refocused their goals and objectives, and both began to define a role for themselves in employment and training programming. There was an implied consensus among these groups, most notably Opportunities Industrialization Centers, Community Action Programs, and Operation SER, that community-based organizations that directed their activities toward specific ethnic, cultural, or racial groups had a clearer understanding of these groups' needs and thus were better prepared to deliver the types of services needed for remediation.

Although most of these groups depended wholly or in large measure upon federal support, the strictures placed upon them were not uniform, and so the programs that developed differed widely in their purposes and in the services provided. However, the common thread was that they were not mandated to serve such broad population groupings as the federally directed programs were, and so, for better or worse, could provide an individualized approach to service.

Programs in Support of Employment and Training Programs

Several federal, state, and local agencies also re-evaluated the role they should play in employment and training programming. One of the most notable of these was Vocational Rehabilitation. VR had been very successful in providing individualized, comprehensive rehabilitation services to those who were distinctly physically or mentally

[4] Garth L. Mangum, and John Walsh, *A Decade of Manpower and Training* (Salt Lake City, Olympus Publishing Co., 1973), pp. 71-72.

handicapped. For a time, this agency broadened its definition of handicapped to include those who had been designated as disadvantaged. Disadvantaged clients were accepted and served on an indivdual basis (as were all VR clients), and thus no programs were developed to serve persons in large numbers as had been the case with MDTA, Job Corps, WIN, and CEP. After several years, VR returned to the more traditional definitions of physically and mentally handicapped and returned to having a supportive role in employment and training programming.

The AFDC program had always had, on a state-by-state or county-by-county basis, small employability programs designed to help welfare recipients become self-supporting. As the Department of Labor became more involved in employment and training, the role of welfare agencies as a direct deliverer of such service diminished; however, local welfare agencies still remained the primary source of supportive services for employment and training program clients who were receiving pubic assistance. Welfare Departments could make the work of the training staff easier by concerning themselves with how a client was going to pay for basic necessities while in training, and the department had a source of funds for medical, transportation, and child care services.

Educational institutions often played a role as the deliverers of skill training at the Skills Center and as the responsible parties for in-school Neighborhood Youth Corps. They also took an active part in the provision of educational supportive services and provided, in many instances, a source of "free" services for clients in search of high school equivalency diplomas or basic literacy.

CETA and Supportive Services

The diversity of CETA prime sponsors is reflected in the manner in which supportive services are provided. The legislation defining comprehensive employment and training services is sufficiently broad to allow prime sponsors to devote as much or as little resources to supportive services as they deem appropriate. Some prime sponsors have elected to develop sophisticated supportive service components, while others believe that such services should be supplied only when they can be demonstrated to have a direct influence upon the sucessful completion of training and the securing of employment. Still other prime sponsors have taken the position that it is not the role of CETA programs to supply these services when they are available in the community, and that the provision of supportive services is the responsibility of social welfare agencies and educational institutions.

Throughout the history of employment and training programs, the role and functioning of supportive or ancilliary services have been continuously questioned. The general scaling down of such services which has occurred under CETA could be attributed to their costs in relation to results, or to the recession, which did not allow for the support of these services no matter how worthy their objectives, or to the feeling that the government cannot and should not do everything because individuals should take responsibility for their own lives. No matter what the reason, the history of supportive services raises significant issues that could have consequences for all employability and employment programs.

Supportive Services and "Employability"

A major consideration is whether supportive services do have a significant impact upon an individual's employability. The goal of employment and training programs has been to assist individuals to become employable. However, the meaning of "employable" has never been clearly defined. Depending upon the historical era, the economic conditions, or the level of industrialization, almost all persons could be regarded as employable. The issue, then, is not whether people are employable, but who it is that society wants to employ, under what conditions, and in what kind of jobs. Of course, the resolution of this issue is far beyond the scope of employment and training programs or of any other single social institution. However, the issue makes it clear that in this society, at this point in time, there are people functioning in all types of jobs who have need of supportive services but who have survived occupationally without such services. Certainly, a janitor's life might be richer if he or she could read, or a file clerk's life happier if he or she were not obese; but would the provision of supportive services make either more "employable," however that term is to be defined?

The Cost of Supportive Services

Supportive services can be relatively expensive in terms of the competing uses for the resources (time and money) expended in providing them and the rate of return on these resources once they have been committed. Short-term or one-time supportive services, such as automobile repairs and purchase of eyeglasses or work uniforms, are relatively discrete, tangible entities that have a discernible result. However, services to deal with the problems of drug addiction, alcoholism and other emotional disorders can be relatively expensive and provide no guarantee of positive results. Many employment and training programs attempted to provide support to those who had drug-related problems, but each drug user enrolled required a high level of individualized support which rarely paid off with the client successfully completing training or taking a job.Following such experience, many programs refused to enroll identified drug addicts or terminated program participation when addiction became apparent.

In addition to monetary limitations, most programs had either implicit or explicit time restrictions on participa-

tion, usually about six months. Often the client would bring to the program problems of long duration or of such severity that they could not be resolved during the allotted time of program participation. Thus, the client would leave the program, not only with the same problems as when he or she entered, but also with a sense of frustration at having failed once again.

These examples of failure serve to highlight the difficulty in determining what benefits supportive services should be expected to confer and how much they should be allowed to cost, not only in resources but also in societal and individual psychic costs. It may be that the benefit to society of persuading one addict to go to work and pay taxes, to give up stealing to support his or her habit, and to go off welfare may be equal to or greater than the cost to society of running the program for some greater number of other addicts who fail. Without adequate estimates of cost and benefits, no one knows. When in doubt, the tendency is to save the immediate and obvious costs rather than pursue the uncertain benefits.

The Provision of Supportive Services

If one wants to take the point of view that supportive services (as defined in chapter 1) do enhance employability, the question of who should provide them becomes relevant. In the last decade there has been a proliferation of privately and publicly funded agencies and organizations that provide a variety of services. Most communities have access to adult education, to physical and mental health care, and based on the ability to pay, to legal aid. Is it the responsibility of employment and training programs to replicate already existing resources, to supplement these resources, or to once again "hustle" these resources for program clients?

There are basically two broad types of supportive services—those that are *critical* to the success of the client in the program and those that will *enhance and enrich* the client's participation in the program. However, what is critical to one client may be only an "enrichment" to another. For example, for a client who has no relatives or friends who can babysit, utilization of a child-care facility may be critical to his or her retaining employment. To that individual who has potential babysitting relatives, a child-care center may be a convenience but not an absolute necessity. It is difficult, then, for the program planner and operator to develop a comprehensive supportive service program, since each client has different needs and different intensity of needs. In addition, there is a continual questioning of whether supportive services should be provided only when they are critical to the success of the client in the program or also when they will enhance the lives of clients or their families but have perhaps only a peripheral impact on employability.

For example, at the inception of WIN and CEP, much time was devoted to providing classes on grooming, poise, personality development, and so on. These classes were usually given prior to the actual skill training, on-the-job training, or referral to employment. Although the intentions of these classes were good—and perhaps even well-grounded—they were found to have little effect on clients' program participation and, in fact, were sometimes a detriment because many clients found these classes to be patronizing and insulting. Thus, it was learned that: (1) These classes were not appropriate for all clients; (2) they were time consuming and expensive; and (3) they were peripheral to the goals of the program.

Continuation of Services After Program Termination

When employment and training programs did organize to provide necessary supportive services, they sometimes found that it was not enough to provide these services during the time of client program participation; the need for such services might very well be as critical after a satisfactory job placement was made. For example, the primary goal of the WIN Program was to remove persons from dependency on welfare. If, after participation in WIN, a job placement was made at a high enough salary to make the client no longer eligible for welfare, not only were welfare benefits stopped, but the additional fringe benefit of child care was also terminated. Although the client was terminated from the program, the need for child care was not concurrently terminated. Thus, staff members could provide all neccessary employment, training, and supportive services during program participation, only to see that, without post-program support, the gains made in the program could be lost.

These issues, when resolved by a program operator, could serve as the basis for policy decisions regarding:

- Whether the program will provide resources for supportive services.
- The level of resources to be allocated.
- Who should provide the services.
- The types of supportive services to be provided.
- The degree of post-program support.

A Note About the Literature

The preceding discussion attempts to point out the unusual position that supportive services have in employment and training programming. One might argue the degree to which resources should be expended for classroom training, on-the-job training, intake and assessment, or job placement, but it would be rare indeed to find a program operator who would disagree that these components have a legitimate function. It is not so rare to find this disagreement concerning supportive services.

The literature in the field does little to dispel the concerns of program operators. Rather, the studies that have been done describe a program or group of programs that are providing services and discuss, many times anecdotally, how such services were organized and implemented and what occured as an apparent result. The conclusion of these studies often includes recommendations directed to other program operators on how to operate similar programs. As valuable as these studies are (and they will be discussed as they apply to individual supportive services), they are not directed at reaching conclusions about: (1) The impact of supported services; (2) the cost of such services in relation to outcomes; and (3) the potential for duplication of service. In order to reach conclusions about these issues, a more rigorous study methodology would have to be applied and would have to consider:

- Evaluation of input, including the use of control groups. (What happens to a similar group of clients who do not receive services?)
- Replication of the programs. (Do the same results occur when different program operators do the same thing?)
- Isolation of the relative cost effectiveness of supportive services.
- Cost factors in relation to outcomes in utilizing existing supportive services as opposed to developing separate resources.

Until such studies are conducted, program operators will have to depend upon the experiences (verified or not) of other deliverers of services to make determinations as to the role supportive services should or should not play in program planning and implementation. The definitive answers as to whether supportive services really make a difference and what really works and what does not will have to wait for studies yet to come.

3. SURVEY OF SELECTED SUPPORTIVE SERVICES

This chapter will describe the individual services that could be defined as in support of employment and training programs and will describe opportunities and constraints that each service presents. Such an appraisal will prove helpful in assisting program operators to determine which services the program should and could provide and which may be better furnished by other organizations, either concurrently with participation in the program or prior to acceptance in it.

Counseling

Counseling—as part of the intake, assessment, and referral process—is the most traditional of the employability services. In this type of counseling, the counselor determines whether the applicant meets basic eligibility criteria and can, in fact, be assisted by the employment and training program. The counselor then works with the client to determine occupational goals and what services are needed to help the client reach these goals. Finally, the counselor will refer the client to appropriate program resources. This counseling relationship, which is usually of very short duration, makes the assumption that the client has the motivation, self-confidence, and attitudes necessary to utilize program resources and needs only minor assistance once program participation has begun. For purposes of this monograph, counseling that encompasses intake, assessment, and referral will be considered integral to employment and training programming and thus not a supportive service.

However, counseling in which the counselor acts as the client advocate can be considered an adjunct to employment and training programming and thus will be defined here as in support of these programs. The goals of this type of counseling might include:

- To prepare the trainee to move into the job by building self-confidence.
- To help the trainee cope with personal problems that could cause him or her to drop out.
- To help develop the work habits needed to do the job.
- To help resolve common work-related problems, such as difficulties in relationships with supervisors and peers.
- To help the trainee cope with the new environment.
- To help the trainee understand and deal with values that are new or may seem alien.
- To help the trainee deal with stresses and strains arising from cultural and linguistic conflicts.
- To help the trainee prepare for future opportunities in the work situation.[5]

Of course, the basic problems in providing such counseling services are in finding an agency or individual who can accomplish these goals and in developing methods for monitoring and evaluating this function. One might argue the validity of other supportive services, but with them, measurement is possible. (Either transportation has been provided or it has not; either a client passes the high school equivalency test or he or she does not.) A program operator, when evaluating counseling, does not have the security of having tangible evidence of accomplishment. Finding counselors and then evaluating their effectiveness has been a sore point with program administrators since the initiation of MDTA.

Those who were vocational counselors prior to the fall of 1964 were specifically instructed to restrict counseling efforts to occupational choice and occupational change. With the advent of programming directed at the disadvantaged, the role of the counselor as perceived by program administrators changed; the "new" counseling focused on "eradicating barriers to employment." An elaborate nationwide training program, Project CAUSE, was developed to prepare potential counselors (recruited primarily from among recent college graduates) to deal with the types of problems that disadvantaged persons were

[5] Edward Glaser and Harvey L. Ross, *Productive Employment of the Disadvantaged: Guidelines for Action*, R&D Findings No. 15 (Washington: U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, 1973), p. 84.

thought to bring to the counseling session—problems, it was implicitly assumed, that could be resolved through the counseling process. Employment counseling had been "professionalized."

Many counselors felt that they should be involved in sophisticated counseling situations, but were not equipped to do so. The basic requirements for an employment counselor were a bachelor's degree and fifteen hours in the social sciences. There was no experience requirement, and in many states in-house training was, at best, inadequate. Master's degree programs in guidance and counseling were often geared to the problems of school counselors rather than to the environment of the employment counselor.

Just as formal training did not always meet the needs of the counselors, so did the informal training on how to deal with bureaucratic structures leave much to be desired. Many counselors saw themselves as powerless in trying to manipulate "the system" and locate resources for program clients.

But perhaps the biggest problem the new employment counselors faced was not their lack of perceptivity into the lifestyles and value systems of the clients they were attempting to assist.

> Trained professional counselors may be ineffective in reaching disadvantaged minorities, especially when they were inclined to treat such clients clinically, as if they were patients. Professional counselors may be too committed to their own middle-class values and unacquainted with work problems that stymie new workers to develop the kinds of interpersonal relationships that lead to successful counseling with disadvantaged persons. The disadvantaged person may see the professional counselor only as an authority figure rather than a friend and helper. On the other hand, it takes a person with special experience and training to understand work settings and resources well enough to be an effective teacher and advocate for the trainee.[6]

As the number and type of employment and training programs increased, the role of the counselor became more ambiguous. Some program administrators believed that the counselor should orient clients to the program and insure that they did not drop out. Others utilized the counselors to develop on-the-job training and placement opportunities. In some Work Incentive Programs the counselor was used as a "work and training specialist," responsible for developing and subcontracting for the educational and vocational components.

The role of the counselor became defined by the personnel needs of the program, and these needs varied from program to program and even within programs. Because of the undefined role of counselors (no one could tell them what constituted successful counseling), everyone was dissatisfied—management, other program staff, clients, and most of all, the counselors.

Even in research and development projects, when the role of the counselor was clearly defined, some areas that could have resulted in clients' making unsound decisions were found. Counselors had the tendency to:

- Dictate to (the client). The counselor's answer to a man's problem was telling him what kind of service he needed, not allowing him to make a completely voluntary selection from information given him by the counselor.
- Make a full-blown case out of a minor difficulty that the client had lived with for years.
- Evidence a lack of imagination and creativity in suggesting solutions to problems.
- Concentrate on one need only when two or more may exist.[7]

Numerous attempts have been made to clearly define the role of the counselor as client advocate. Paraprofessionals have been used as counselors/client advocates in several employment and training programs; however, the degree of sucess experienced by the paraprofessionals seemed to correlate with the clarity with which expectations were delineated and the acceptance of these expectations by the paraprofessional and by other staff members. For example, the California State Legislature created a new civil service classification, Job Agent, which was designed to individualize the delivery of employment and training service. The Job Agents, who were often members of community advocate groups, were expected to be client advocates, perform job development, monitor clients' progress on the job, and obtain assistance for clients in dealing with social, economic, and other problems that might inhibit the clients' ability to find or hold employment. In other words, the Job Agent was to become a "Personal Employment Service."[8]

However, as theoretically sound as this concept may have been, its implementation surfaced unforeseen problems. Line and managerial staff were opposed to the idea of bringing in the "non-professional" (at a sometimes higher salary) to carry out duties previously done by "professional staffs." The tacit, and sometimes overt, hostility made it difficult for the Job Agents to be integrated into the agency structure. The Job Agents, in their enthusiasm for their role of client advocate, sometimes neglected their other functions, and so fulfilled the prophecy that they would not be able to handle the job. In addition, no new resources for providing services or for changing the methods by which jobs were located were furnished. These internal problems, in addition to a downturn in the economy and a loss of Title V funds, sped the end of this experiment.[9]

WIN and CEP were originally organized in the "team concept"; that is, a group of persons, each with specified functions, acted in concert with and for the client. In their theoretical ideal, these teams had a team leader, and this leader was generally the counselor. The counselor was thus given the additional responsibility of moving the team toward goals and objectives. Again, although the concept of the "team" and "team leader" was theoretically sound administrative and human problems kept it from success. Counselors who in many instances were struggling with that role had difficulty in merging the function of counsel-

[6] Project SPRUCE, *Special Program of Rehabilitation for Unemployment Compensation Exhaustees*, vol.2 (Albany: New York Department of Labor, May 1973), p. 14.

[7] R. William Hauk and Harvey Ross, *An Attempt to Change a Department of State Government Through Legislation: The California Job Agent Program* (Washington: U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, July 1971).

[8] Ibid., p. 87.

[9] Ibid.

ing with the function of leading. Team members sometimes resented the counselor becoming *a priori* the team leader because they felt the counselor was given the role of leader solely because of education. First-line supervisors were concerned that team leaders would infringe upon their prerogatives. Once more, unforeseen and thus unmanaged difficulties frustrated an idea about counseling.

The literature about counseling written by counselors is very optimistic about the impact they can make. Those who were counselors or who supervised the counseling function know that such optimism is justified when the counselor is the "right" person—that is, a person who understands the client and the enviroment from which the client comes, who has professional training, and who, perhaps as importantly, has the ability to gain cooperation from coworkers and administrators.

The successful counselors seem to be the ones who can provide the type of service the client both needs and perceives that he or she needs. Successful counselors understand that a client looking for a job does not expect to enter therapy, but expects help in finding a job; that when a client asks for information, the client would really like that information to be provided and does not expect to explore why he or she is asking that question; and that when a client is really experiencing emotional problems, a referral to a professional skilled in handling those problems is in order. Experience has shown that the school of counseling to which counselors adhere is less important to the final result than is their ability to understand "where the client is" and what realistically can be done to get the client where he or she wants to be.

Orientation

According to *Webster's Seventh New Collegiate Dictionary*, "to orient" is: "(1) To set right by adjusting the facts or principles, (2) to acquaint with the existing situation or environment." In general, the orientation components of employment and training programs have been developed to encompass both of these meanings, although the methods of implementing the components and the expected outcomes of participation are as varied as the components themselves.

Many national programs—CEP, WIN, Skills Centers, OIC's, and others—made extensive use of the orientation component. The structure and content of these orientation components varied from project to project, but most were based upon the premise that orientation would prepare an individual to take training or a job and to succeed. This preriod of preparation ranged from a one-week to a four-week session and covered such topics as:

- The purpose and objectives of orientation and what the participants would get out of regular attendance.
- The rules and regulations of the program in which the participants were enrolled.
- The requirements for participation in the program.
- The program resources available to the participant.
- The availability of community-based resources.
- Job-finding skills.
- Test-taking skills.
- The expectations of employers.
- Work attitudes.
- Grooming and acceptable dress (job oriented).
- Job-related expectations of the participants.
- Knowledge of transportation systems.
- Child care assistance and services.
- Money management and family budgeting.
- Consumer education, including the "dangers" of signing sales contracts.
- Nutrition.
- Development of a positive self-image.
- Communication skills.
- Self-help techniques.

It was generally agreed that the orientation component should be scheduled so that the participant would move directly from orientation to placement on a job-training component. This close coordination between components was considered essential for two reasons: First, it would provide a sense of pride in accomplishment for those clients who completed the sessions, and second, it would establish a foundation of trust in the staff of the employment and training program and lead to greater efforts on the part of the clients to repeat the successful performance in a new job or training component. Unfortunately, the administrative problems inherent in allocating resources to achieve "tight scheduling" between components often made it impossible for the majority of clients to move quickly from one component to another. In addition, there were problems in knowing how quick is quickly—a week? a month? Some clients would "fall between the cracks" overnight, while others would continue to stay in touch for weeks until placed on a job or in training. Indeed, there were problems in knowing whether orientation did, in fact, make a difference in a client's continuing participation in the program.

One WIN project in a large, midwestern state subcontracted the orientation to a small firm specializing in human development. This firm provided a four-week session that met five days a week, and its success was remarkable. It had the lowest rate of absenteeism of any component in the program.

As the months passed, the WIN Program operators realized that the WIN clients were developing warm and open relationships with the subcontractor, but when orientation was completed and the clients returned to work regularly with the program staff members, it was as if they were starting all over again. When problems arose, the client would turn to the orientation leader for support and the leader would act as intermediary between the client and the employment and training staff.

Uncomfortable situations arose. The program operators

had also been running an informal study to determine whether orientation has an impact upon success. They compared the progress of those person who did not receive orientation with those who did and found no significant difference. They then made two decisions: (1) That they would hire staff and conduct "in-house" orientation and (2) that only those persons for whom it could be shown that orientation was necessary would attend. These decisions proved to be satisfactory; the clients continued to attend regularly and developed good relationships with WIN staff. However, the program operators still had a nagging doubt that orientation was being used simply to enroll and involve clients in the WIN Program quickly so they would be eligible for the stripend, rather than using the component because it had demonstrated that it made clients more employable.

A large WIN project on the West Coast had a similar experience. This project conducted in-house orientation from the beginning of the program, developed three-week sessions with clients participating five days a week, six hours a day. The same general results were obtained; clients attended the sessions regularly (three out of four attended every session) and developed warm, relationships among themselves, with the group leader and with other program staff. It was decided that all clients "needed" orientation and all would go through orientation before assignment to any other component. After the first eight or ten months, it became evident that, while most clients liked orientation, attended regularly, and said they learned a lot, their subsequent participation in other components of the program did not measure up to the high expectations in evidence at the conclusion of the orientation session.

An informal review of the records and evaluations of clients revealed the following: (1) Nearly three-quarters of those who attended sessions were considered (rated) "improved" by the experience, both by themselves and the group leaders; (2) those who went immediately (within two or three weeks) into work-related components (e.g., on-the-job training or work experience) maintained high levels of participation; (3) those who went into skill training tended to maintain high levels of participation, although with more absences than those in work components (e.g., two out of four would be absent at least once, rather than one out of four); (4) those who went into basic education classes had poorer attendance records than clients in any other component, whether they had good attendance records in orientation or not; and (5) those who were placed in jobs or found jobs after orientation did not necessarily remain in them (the average length of time on the job was five weeks).

It must be stressed that this was an informal, one-time look at the case records in the program. This review served to raise more issues than it resolved. On the one hand, clients liked the orientation sessions and seemed to relate better to the WIN staff and program than those who had not attended sessions; on the other hand, there was no evidence that this lengthy in-depth orientation to the program, community, and "world of work" had any significant relationship to successful program completion and long-term employment. It seemed apparent that the real payoff of orientation was the substantial lowering of transaction costs for the client. Attending orientation sessions and developing rapport with the program staff served to provide a participating client with the means of obtaining low-cost information about the "system" and how it worked, as well as the assistance of a staff, generally committed to client advocacy, that was willing to assume a greater than equal share of the costs of negotiating job and training placements and additional services from welfare and other social agencies. The question of whether these benefits to the clients returned a future benefit to society that was greater than or equal to the cost of orientation remains unanswered.

Other types of orientation that have been used in employment and training programs include vestibule training and "one-to-one" program orientation. This latter type is merely a matter of informing the client of the purpose, rules, and regulations of the program, his or her responsibility to participate, and the client's rights under the program.

An informal vestibule orientation is often provided to employees as they enter a new job. The information provided has to do with, among other things, policy about raises, vacations, sick leave, and the customs and procedures of the work setting. This kind of informality tends to be ineffective in establishing relevant communication patterns with new workers who are disadvantaged or who have had little previous work experience. This is especially true of new workers who are culturally or racially different from the majority of the work force. A more formal orientation to the employer, generally an initial block of time devoted to information giving, has been found to be more successful. The goals of this orientation should be to:

- Provide basic information on the way the company works, how it affects new employees, what is expected of them, and what they can expect of the company.
- Provide tangible proof that the program is "for real" and that the company is credible.
- Stimulate trainee motivation through offering incentives such as promotional opportunities, pay increases, seniority status, and other regular employment benefits.
- Build a sense of responsibility, self-confidence, and belief in self.[10]

On the whole, employers who have developed and implemented a vestibule orientation program for their disadvantaged and less experienced workers have found that the rate of attrition is dramatically reduced and that the new workers tend to become valuable, longer term employees.[11] Whether such orientation should be restricted to those with the most obvious need or provided to all enrollees and employees is a matter of some controversy. Restricting orientation to disadvantaged workers reduces costs. However, identifying that group as different may lead to sensitivity on the part of those required to take orientation, resentment on the part of those who perceive the disadvantaged as

[10]Glaser and Ross, op.cit., pp. 79-80.

[11]Ibid.

getting special treatment, and possibly to lowered retention. Each practitioner must decide on the pros and cons under particular circumstances.

Such vestibule orientation may be provided by the employing firm, by consultants, or by the public agency responsible for placing the workers with particular firms. The critical issue is the relationship between cost and effectiveness.

Educational Services

Instruction in communicative, computational and social skills for adults whose inability to effectively use these skills substantially impairs their getting or retaining employment commensurate with their real ability.[12]

The above definition of basic education describes the rationale for providing such services as a part of or as an adjunct to employment and training programming. Whether it should be termed a supportive service would depend ultimately upon the intent of the program, but for purposes of this discussion, educational services will be defined as in support of employment and training programs.

The perspectives of educators and program administrators differ somewhat. Educators generally believe that education in and of itself has meaning. Program operators feel that such services should have direct relationship to skill training and subsequent employment, especially as the costs of educational services become apparent. The following discussion will focus on the concerns of program operators, which may or may not be congruent with the concerns of educators.

The three major types of educational services that employment and training programs have provided are:

1. Basic literacy, aimed at those clients who were illerate or near illerate.
2. Preparation for the *high school equivalency test* (GED training), directed towards clients who could read, write, and do arithmetic computations at about the ninth grade level, but who have not received a high school diploma.
3. English as a second language (ESL), for those clients who might or might not be literate in their native language, but who neither speak nor write English.

Generally, one of the problems with educational programming in early employment and training programs was the inability of program planners to differentiate among these three forms of education. It was not unusual to see persons who had only the most basic literacy skills involved in preparing for the GED, or to see non-English speaking persons who were literate in their native language in classes with clients who had never mastered any literacy skills.

One of the reasons why separate classes were not initiated was that program planners were really not sure what the goals of basic literacy and ESL were. Usually,employability plans were vague generalities, and improved literacy was only peripherally related to job goals. It was easier to have as an objective the securing of a GED certificate, no matter how far-fetched this was in light of a client's past educational attainment.

Another area of uncertainty was whether the already exisiting programs developed by local schools should be used. Not only were they sometimes available without costs to the employment and training programs, but they were already there. The use of these programs met with varying degrees of success or failure, depending upon the program and the client, but some of the obstacles which program operators encountered included:

1. The inability of the school-run program to provide information on client attendance and progress.
2. The lack of open-entry, open-exit programs.
3. The lack of individualized instruction.
4. The divergent goals of the education and employment and training programs (i.e., the educational programs urged clients to stay until they felt ready to take the GED test or were comfortable with their literacy level; the employment and training programs wanted the client to to reach goals as quickly as possible).

Basic Literacy

Most of the major employment and training programs of the 1960's and early 1970's had a basic literacy component (either attached to GED training or as a separate entity). As previously discussed, those attached to GED training had the aquisition of the high school equivalency certificate as their goal. Goals for those programs not attached to GED programs were less clear, if not less unrealistic. Rarely would an employability plan state specifically that the expected goal was, for example, a seventh grade reading level, or if such a goal was stated, it was not related to specific, realistic occupational objectives.

The employment and training staff who were placing clients into these educational components believed that they were only fulfilling their mandate to develop clients to their fullest potential. It was only after clients had been in these components for periods in excess of a year that program operators began to question their value in relation to outcomes—especially employment outcomes—and to wonder whether the improvement in reading and computational skills that could be effected within the time and money constraints of the program were really worthwhile.

There are, of course , remarkable stories of people who were functionally illiterate who went on to get their high school diplomas, but these were the exception. Generally, the program operators found themselves involved in expensive programs that had minimum payoffs in terms of how the classes had an impact on employability. More and more program operators came to the conclusion that the development of basic literacy skills should be left to the educators and that only the development of those skills necessary to

[12]Richard Cortwright and Edward W. Bruce, "Adult Basic Education," *Handbook of Adult Education*, Robert M. Smith, George F. Adler, and J.R. Kidd, eds., ch. 24 (New York: MacMillan Co., 1970), pp. 407-408.

work survival (e.g., reading safety signs) had a place in employment and training programming.

GED Preparation

Although the purpose of GED preparation as it related directly to employment was not always as clear as might be desirable, the high school equivalency certificate was a demonstrated asset. In fact, for some apprenticeship occupations it was a requirement, high school diploma or no diploma. Nonetheless, perhaps the enthusiasm with which GED preparation classes were initiated was not always warranted. The most inhibiting factor was the selection of clients. GED training, as it was envisioned by most program planners, was a six - to twelve-week program designed solely to help clients pass the test. Acquisition of literacy skills was viewed as a peripheral benefit. Clients who were successful usually already had most of the basic skills, but perhaps needed to "brush up" in fractions and in test-taking methods. However, many employment and training staffs did not have the means by which to determine literacy levels or potentials for passing the test. Clients who needed much more than a "brush-up" were put into classes, and the courses were often repeated several times before the certificate was acquired or the client gave up.

English as a Second Language

The implementation of ESL programs generally came after attempts at, and sometimes failure in, other educational programs. Perhaps because program operators had learned from their past experiences and because the need for ESL was readily identifiable, ESL programs seem to have fared better than the previous educational services. Then, too, the impetus for ESL often came from community groups that demanded such programming; the perceived need for ESL originated with persons who were to receive service rather than with the deliverers of such service.

Summary

Even with the problems faced in providing educational services, a number of programs were able to meet time and money constraints and still furnish educational services.

A medium size WIN Program encouraged a very successful adult education teacher to go into business as a subcontractor furnishing basic literacy and GED training. The GED training was very successful (over 90 percent pass rate every 12 weeks), but the teacher personally reviewed the achievement levels of those entering the component and suggested the basic literacy class, if appropriate. The GED training stressed passing the test, and the skills learned were directly related to that goal. Unfortunately, the basic literacy component did not have such a specific goal, and it fizzled out when the program operator decided that the progress of clients through the component was too small to have any effect upon their potential for employment.

A very successful ESL class run by a CETA prime sponsor has as its goal immediate employment after basic English has been mastered. The program operators see their clients as job ready (either because of skills or because of their willingness to take entry level jobs) and view ESL as the only service that will need to be provided.

In another apparently effective program, skill training and educational services are joint components, with the education having direct relevance to the skill training and in some cases being taught by the vocational instructor.

In general, the trend in educational services in employment and training programming is away from the development of components that may "enhance a client's employability" and toward funding services that have measurable goals—either in terms of educational skills to be obtained or placements that can be made because of the attainment of these skills—and that can be shown to have direct bearing upon immediate employment. If educational services are a prerequisite to successful program participation, clients are encouraged to reevaluate their occupational goals or are told that this particular program cannot provide the required services.

Transportation

In one study of supportive services,[13] the researchers found in seven of the ten cities visited that the lack of adequate transportation was cited as the greatest barrier to program success, and was identified as a key problem in every site except New York City.

An in-depth study of transportation issues for a program in a rural county in Vermont found that, in addition to the fact that participants either had to have access to a car or walk, "the distance between client and slot has a measurable impact on the ability of a participant to complete SWP [Special Work Projects] training. That is, the farther a client lives from his slot, the higher the probability of termination (dropping out)."[14]

In order to begin to cope with the massive problem of ensuring that clients could physically get from their homes to training sites or jobs, program operators had to determine where their clients lived in relation to the location of their area's industrial sites and business communities and to assess the availability of a public transportation system that could link the two. From this assessment the operators

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[13] Canal Associates, *Evaluation of Supportive Services Provided to Participants of Manpower Programs* (Washington: U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, 1972).

[14] Vermont Department of Employment Security, *Transportation as a Factor in the Delivery of Rural Manpower Services in Public Service Employment: The Vermont Experience* (Washington: U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, September 1975).

could decide to pursue a course based upon at least three alternatives:

1. Develop skill training to meet the skill requirements or shortages of potential employers who were most accessible to the program's clients.
2. Move the clients to homes in areas that had access to the employing community.
3. Develop other means by which clients could get to and from training or employment.

The third alternative is the one that most programs selected. There was no single solution to the clients' transportation dilemma. The ultimate solution, implementation of inexpensive and accessible mass rapid transit, is far beyond the influence of an employment and training program. However, most programs attempted either formally or informally to cope with the problem. The following are solutions (or at least partial solutions) that programs have utilized, either singly or in combination:

1. Payment for automobile repairs. The program pays for the repair of an automobile so that it can be used as transportation to training or work. This solution worked moderately well, providing a program staff had some knowledge of automobiles or ability to establish relations with a reliable automobile repair shop. Too many times, cars were repaired only to "die" again a few weeks later. There were instances, however, when repairing an automobile was not only a solution to a client's transportation problems but had other benefits as well, such as the WIN client who volunteered to drive other clients to training, or the successfully terminated client who turned her old car over to the program when she had bought a new one.
2. Encouraging the employer to organize car pools. Because of the energy crisis, many employers have voluntarily served as clearing-houses for employees who need rides or who are willing to provide them. The program coordinated with the employer to make the necessary arrangements.
3. Using taxicabs for car pools. When several clients lived in the same vicinity and worked for the same employer, arrangements sometimes were made with a taxi cab company to make regular pickups. If this could be coordinated, the cost could be reduced because the company or independent cab driver was guaranteed these two runs a day.
4. Using minibuses. Some programs purchased nine-passenger station-wagons or minibuses to transport program participants. Although this system was invaluable while the participant was actively involved in the training (for transporting persons on tours of places of business, to testing sites for high school equivalency tests, to licensing tests, and so on), their use was generally not a long-term solution for the participant who obtained employment. The program could not afford enough minibuses or drivers to transport people on a regular basis. In some programs, concern about insurance liability curtailed the use of program-operated buses.
5. Making arrangements with independent, charter bus companies. If enough clients living in the same vicinity were also to be working in the same area, independent bus companies were sometimes convinced that a regular charter run was profitable.
6. Providing bus tickets or tokens. Most programs relied, at least partially, upon public transportation. A number of these programs supplied clients with bus tickets or tokens, either on an emergency basis or as a regular training related expense. It was thought that tickets or tokens were more suitable than cash; clients would see their use for a particular purpose. This was generally true, but in at least one large city, a black market in bus tickets developed.

Arranging for transportation services was always a time-consuming task, whether the staff provided the transportation themselves or arranged services through other sources. However, it was one of the more gratifying tasks since it was one of the few services from which the staff and client could get immediate satisfaction.

Physical Health Services

Because of the inadequate health care provided the poor, employment and training program clients often bring with them serious health problems. Program operators have to ask the same questions about the provision of physical health services as they do about the provision of any other ancilliary service:

1. Does the problem affect the client's ability to function in skill training or on the job?
2. Do we want to do something about it?

Initially, some WIN Programs required physical examinations as part of the assessment process. When health problems were identified, the local welfare department was responsible for appropriate medical referrals. The physical examination requirement proved helpful to the program operator, but clients and client groups raised questions and complaints about the blanket prerequisite, and the requirement was dropped. The program operator was then unable to determine before clients entered programs whether health problems were present, and unless the client volunteered information, could not distinguish between clients who could participate and those who could not.

Generally, program operators found that they had to respond to clients' medical problems on an immediate basis or lose the client. Some of the resources that program operators used included public health facilities on either free or subcontract basis and private health clinics on a subcontracted basis.

As difficult as locating health services for acute physical problems was, the problems encountered in the development of resources to meet chronic illness, especially alcoholism and drug addiction, were unique. Not only did the staff have to develop resources, they

had to encourage clients to utilize them. Since these two chronic health problems could preclude successful participation in a program component, the staff could not hold out the carrot of a weekly stipend. In addition, in most states alcoholism and drug addiction were not defined as disabilities by either Welfare Department regulations or Vocational Rehabilitation. For staff members whose clients were welfare recipients, this lack of official recognition was the cause of consternation; refusing to accept a client into the program or terminating a client because of drug addiction or alcoholism was not considered a "good cause" for non-participation, and so the staff was put in the position of either jeopardizing the client's welfare grant or accepting and keeping a client in the program who would not be able to participate. Some attempts were made to refer clients to Alcoholics Anonymous or to drug rehabilitation programs, but dealing with these problems in an employment and training program setting proved no easier than did dealing with them in any other societal context.

The addiction to food—obesity—was as stubborn a problem. Individual programs did have some success by paying for clients' participation in Weight Watchers and by providing information about nutrition, but the success stories, as memorable as they were, were offset by the number of clients who were virtually unemployable (at least in their chosen jobs) because they were seriously overweight.

For other chronic health problems, program staffs used the services of Vocational Rehabilitation; VR would often provide comprehensive medical evaluation and prosthetic devices. However, because of its own program constraints, VR was not used for every client, but was subcontracted with on an individual or group basis.

Sources such as Planned Parenthood and the League of the Handicapped were also used, either on a subcontract or free basis, to meet specific client needs.

No matter how clever the staffs were in developing physical health resources, the delivery of such services was an involved process. One recent feasibility study exploring health intervention as a means of increasing entry of welfare clients into the labor market concluded that:

> "...health handicaps which limit or prevent entry of welfare recipients into job training or employment are complex, being conditioned by sick role behavior, lack of motivation, long neglect, emotional problems, and obesity. Unless welfare clients are desirous to enter the workforce, they are not anxious to obtain optimal health. Indeed, the prominence of sick role behavior suggests that health complaints are used as a means of excusing social and economic failure.[15]

Generally the delivery of physical health services seemed to be most effective when *purchased* for those persons with non-chronic problems (e.g., the need for eyeglasses or cosmetic dental work) and least effective for those persons whose health problems were an actual or perceived deterrent to finding or holding a job.

[15]Daphne A. Roe, *Feasibility Study: Physical Rehabilitation and Employment of AFDC Recipients*, under contract with U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, October 1975, p. 17.

Mental Health Services

The concept that working and being paid are the methods by which the individual demonstrates that he or she is a worthwhile human being is a value strongly held in Western society. Thus, not being able to find or retain employment, especially when the economy is sound, is often considered to be a symptom of underlying mental health problems. Some individual programs believed that the delivery of mental health services was a reasonable activity, either as part of their regular counseling process or on a subcontract basis. For many programs the provision of these services was not a happy experience. Definition of the need, in and of itself, affected the clients' participation in the program. Because of the negative connotation of "mental problems," the staff had to carefully ensure that the defined problem was really a problem. A casual "paranoid" written on a case record folder was far more damaging to the client's employability (in terms of how staff reacted and which jobs the client was referred to) than the lack of an occupational skill.

In one case in which mental health services were furnished, the experiment proved to be more a learning experience for the program operator than for the clients. On a trial basis, the program organized a group therapy session for clients who had severe absentee problems. The group was led by a licensed psychologist assisted by the program's employment counselors. The underlying assumption of the experiment was that clients would not be consistently absent from programs unless they were suffering from mental health problems. Care was taken to insure that participating clients understood the purpose of the group therapy, and these client signed waivers that freed the program from liability. The result of this experiment was that clients not only absented themselves from the regular program components, but also from the therapy group. However, the employment and training staff came to the conclusion that some clients did not participate because they just were not interested, and that "self-actualization" probably would not change this basic disinterest.

The experiences of program operators as deliverers of mental health services was generally not favorable, except in the instances when the problem was peripheral to the clients' employability and could be handled concurrently with skill training or employment. Realistically, the program operator could not be expected to solve long-term problems with the limited resources available.

Child-Care Services

Except in times of national emergency (e.g., war years), day-care programs were generally available only to families who could afford them. Neither private enterprise nor government was willing to subsidize quality day care for

low-income families.[16] The implicit assumption underlying early employment and training legislation was that program participants would be men. The reality of the situation is that significant numbers of the unemployed and underemployed are women heads of households. WIN was an initial recognizer of the problems that women faced when entering the labor market. Although program legislation suggested that child-care services could be provided, no systematic approach to developing and funding day-care centers was set forth. Rather, each individual WIN project in concert with the cooperating welfare agency would attempt to locate these services.

An interesting problem encountered by one WIN project and shared by other employment and training programs was not so much the lack of day-care centers as the reluctance of clients to leave their children with strangers, no matter how qualified those strangers were. The project explored with clients the feasibility of obtaining the paid child-care services of neighbors and relatives. The Welfare Department paid the individual child-care providers after they had certified them as having suitable homes. In many ways, neighbors and relatives proved more satisfactory than did child-care centers, at least in terms of the goals of the program if not in terms of the needs of the child:

1. Neighbors and relatives had more flexible schedules than did child-care centers and, thus, could respond more easily when training or work crises arose.
2. The neighbors relatives lived nearby and the transportation of the children was not inconvenient.
3. The neighbors relatives were known to the children, and so there was not the concern of having the children with strangers.
4. When a child was sick, the neighbors or relatives often agreed to come to the client's house; thus the parent did not have to miss work or training.

A CEP project initiated a creative, although expensive, approach to child-care. Staff members started their own child-care center, using the center to train child-care workers. Initial problems were encountered in meeting state licensing requirements and in the referral process, but after these problems were resolved, the program appears to have been successful. The final result was that, after a year of operation, the actual management of the child-care center became the responsibility of the Welfare Department, with CEP as the deliverer of the training services.

Attempts have been made to negotiate with the private sector and to convince it that child-care centers can become profit-making entities or can help the private sector in meeting its social obligations. This approach has been met with less than enthusiastic response. Although some large businesses have opened day-care centers for children of employees, state licensing laws, insurance regulations, and disinterest have kept this from becoming an overall solution. In addition, the cost of programming is high. For example, a child-care service that would have provided a full range of services to the children and their families would have cost $3,093 per child in 1971. With inflation, one could expect the cost now to be at least 25 percent higher.

Just as a program can purchase and "hustle" all types of services for an individual client, it can also find adequate child care for one client or perhaps a group of clients. However, since the staff cannot "fix" everything for everyone, employment and training programs will have to wait until public sentiment is favorable (and the money is available) for the implementation of large scale child-care facilities that meet the needs of low-income families.

Legal and Bonding Services

Because the need for legal services for civil cases was sporadic, programs generally acted as referral agents for clients to community legal aid societies.

The legal services that these societies offered included divorce proceedings, personal bankruptcy, closing of police records, injunctions against garnishments, and debt reorganization assistance.

Legal service agencies did not handle felony cases, but for those clients who could not afford a lawyer, the court provided public defenders. Although the employment and training program did not provide direct legal services, it was often used as an ally of the defense to show that the client was actively involved in rehabilitating himself or herself. (The program was used as a supportive service by the lawyer and client.)

Bonding services for persons who had police, credit, or other records that prevented their being covered by the usual commercial bonds could be obtained through the Department of Labor's Federal Bonding Program. This program, administered by state employment service agencies, was available to any individual who was qualified and suitable for the employment in question and who was not commercially bondable under ordinary circumstances.[17] However, except in programs that had a client population of ex-offenders, the need for bonding services was not consistent.

Use of Local Petty Cash Funds

It was not (and still is not) uncommon to see staff members arranging raffles, dances, coffee funds, and other events. The proceeds of these events were used to meet the immediate cash needs of clients. Staff members routinely used their own money to supply clients with funds for bus

[16] *Neighborhood-Based Child Care for the Inner City*, Manpower for the Human Services, Monograph No. 5 (Washington: U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, June 1971).

[17] John M. McKee, *Guide for Employment Service Counselors in Correctional MDTA Programs*, Rehabilitation Research Foundation under contract with the U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, Washington, D.C., 1972.

tickets, haircuts, and other items to facilitate the clients' achievement of a goal. The motivation of the staff members was more realistic than altruistic. If the client could not purchase an immediate need such as transportation or health care, the opportunities for employment could be curtailed.

Some programs encouraged the use of petty cash funds, but many states had regulations prohibiting state employees from having access to cash. One state in which all program staff members had access to petty cash funds instituted a revolving system in which the program was given a base amount of money (usually $50); the funds were replenished to this set level when the program submitted vouchers showing how the money was spent and attaching receipts when appropriate.

There are arguments, pro and con, about the advisability of allowing local staffs the use of cash. However, past experience has demonstrated that with minimal controls the petty cash fund can be a valuable supportive service. It allows for the purchase of items to fulfill immediate needs; it costs very little in the long run (far less than having a long, involved procedure for obtaining items); and most importantly, it gives staff autonomy to make immediate decisions.

4. MODEL VARIATIONS

Usually program planners consider supportive services as discrete entities rather than as a comprehensive package. Thus, the design of supportive services has centered on the delivery of individual services and has not focused on the development of models that could serve as the policy and operational base of the supportive service activity. The following is an attempt to present models that program operators could consider as they plan for overall delivery of employability and supportive services. It must be kept in mind that these models are composites of field experience and have not been tested, except in the most casual way; therefore, the discussion of their ramifications is intended to be illustrative rather than site specific.

One: No Provision for Supportive Services

In this model, the program operator has determined that the program will be directed solely at skill training and placement. It is assumed that clients will have no supportive services in the community. There is no on-paper cost to the program for this approach, and it requires no apparent staff time in the traditional management function.

Although it is wholly acceptable in the planning stages, this approach has a significant drawback: the program operator has to be willing to make the decision that the program will enroll only persons whose employment-related problems are either lack of job skills or lack of job-finding skills. (The problems inherent in encountering such persons who also meet program criteria are manifold.) Unless the program operator can make this unpopular and perhaps unrealistic decision, operational staff will find themselves in the uncomfortable position of not having any resources to meet the non-skill or non-placement needs of their clients. Because people in employment and training programs, working in line positions, do so because they like working with and on behalf of other people, they are going to find a way to meet client needs; at least they are going to spend a lot of staff time trying to do so. The program operator will have put the staff in the position of being "hustlers of service," and in the long run the program will probably suffer.

Two: Provision of Supportive Services Through Interagency Agreements

In this model, the program operator has decided that even though the program will not allocate any funds to the supportive services activity, a need exists. The need will be met through other agencies already in existence, which provide such services to community members at no cost. Rather than depending on individual staff members' initiave to "hustle" these services for individual clients, the program operator draws up formal agreements with these providers of supportive services.

While it is easy to have administrators agree formally with one another, it is difficult to make this agreement operational at the line level. The employment and training staff want to use the service, but the cooperating agency staff may not understand "what's in it for them." All staff members may want to cooperate, but mechanisms by which such cooperation can become functional would have to be built. In order to establish a sound basis for agreements, the program operator, in concert with the cooperating agencies and programs, would have to develop methods by which:

1. Agency/program personnel know that cooperative agreements have been reached, understand each other's functions and responsibilities, and are aware of the supportive services *each* has to offer.
2. Client referrals can be made—both from the employment and training program and to it.
3. The referring program receives client progress reports.
4. The referring program is aware of the final outcome of the referral.
5. The agency/organization to which the client was referred is informed of the outcome of the client's participation in the employment and training program. (The program staff are not the only ones interested in the client.)

The advantages of this type of model are:

- The on-paper costs in actual cash spent is minimal.
- Duplication of service is avoided.
- Services are provided by experts.
- Depending on the cooperating agency, additional services may become available to the client (e.g., services for other family members).

The disadvantages include:

- The client has to establish relationships with several agencies and individuals within those agencies in order to receive service.
- The client has to spend time traveling from agency to agency to receive services.
- The employment and training program does not have control over the quality of service provided.
- The program will not receive progress and attendance reports in uniform formats.
- Tracking of clients becomes difficult and time consuming.

The program operator, in deciding to dichotomize direct employment and training services and supportive services, must consider the two major problems in such a system: First, the client will have two groups with whom to establish relationships, and second, the goals of these groups, as they relate to the client, may not be congruent and, in fact, may be competing. For example, a social service agency providing counseling services may feel professionally obligated to discuss with a client a wide range of subjects, many of which may be at best peripherally related to the client's activities in the employment and training program. An educational institution may see its role soley in terms of GED test preparation, and it may encourage persons who may not be able to pass the test without extensive assistance to insist on continuing in that particular program. The second problem, which is related to the first, is the difficulty the program operator will have in coordinating the flow of clients to and from the two types of components or in developing methods by which the client can participate in the two components concurrently.

Three: Subcontracting—Separation From Employment and Training Functions

In this model, the program operators have determined that one or more of the following factors exist:

1. Identified supportive services are not available in the community,
2. Those that are available are inadequate to meet employment and training client needs,
3. They are too difficult to obtain on a no-cost basis, or
4. The program operator prefers to contract for services that might otherwise be available without cost in order to maintain greater control over the type, amount, quality, and timing of the services provided.

A decision has been made that it is desirable to purchase these services, and that the deliverers of the service will not be the same as the deliverers of the skill training or job placement activities. The decision to separate these components is based on several considerations:

1. Those who deliver skill training or job placement should focus on these activities and should not get enmeshed in the delivery of ancillary services.
2. Several of the supportive service activities may be better delivered by experts.
3. The program can retain control over how many clients receive what supportive services.
4. It is possible to individualize the service and purchase it for one or many clients.
5. As with any paid for service, the program can better maintain control of quality and of reporting procedures.

Four: Provision of Services by the Deliverers of Employment and Training Services

In this model, the program operator has determined that the delivery of supportive services should be directly attached to the delivery of skill training and job placement. However, unlike Model No. 1, money and staff time will be allocated. The program operator selects this model because the following are seen as advantages:

1. There are fewer subcontractors, and so the monitoring and evaluation function need not be spread as thin.
2. The client will have to establish relations with a minimum number of agencies and individuals.
3. The flow of clients through the program will be coordinated more easily.
4. The supportive services provided will be directly related to the client's ability to succeed in the skill training or on the job.
5. The responsibility for client progress resides with a few individuals; it is easier to hold subcontractors accountable.

In selecting this model, the program operators must decide the program can survive the following disadvantages:

1. The clients will not be receiving supportive services from experts.
2. The staff may get involved in the provision of supportive services to the neglect of the skill training or job placement activity.
3. There may be the tendency to take a lock-step approach to the provision of supportive services. Since the subcon-

tractor has geared up to provide such services, there may be an implicit assumption that everybody needs something.

Of course, even when the decision has been made to develop a comprehensive approach to the delivery of supportive services, no program operator would select one model and adhere rigorously to its conditions. Rather, the program operator would select a model based upon the objectives and goals of the employment and training program but would modify the structure based upon the determination of what supportive services will be provided and the resources which will be allocated to these services.

5. IDENTIFICATION OF SELECTED ELEMENTS IN PLANNING

Axiomatic in most social planning efforts is the uncomfortable knowledge that the finished document is only memorable to those who wrote it. The purpose of engaging in these planning activities for supportive services is to determine and describe the conditions that are to be changed, to define standards that measure the amount and kind of change, and to devise methods to make the desired changes happen. In the simplest terms, one must plan the work and then work the plan. If the plan does not work, it must be adapted, or it will be a thorn in the side of many and a comfort to none. This is especially true in the planning and implementation of supportive services.

It should be kept in mind that one of the outcomes of the planning process could be a decision not to provide supportive services through the employment and training program, but to accept only those clients who are able and available to participate in job training or placement.

The following discussion of the "elements" in a supportive services plan is intended to be descriptive in nature and to suggest a frame of reference in which to consider issues that arise in the planning process. The elements to be discussed include:

1. Identification and description of the universe of potential clients who may require supportive services.
2. Identification, description, and assessment of available resources.
3. Determination of current unmet client needs.
4. Determination of the feasibility of developing resources to meet the unmet needs (funding considerations).
5. Setting of priorities among unmet needs.
6. Determination of service levels.

One of the primary difficulties with this planning framework is the general lack of current, reliable data for small areas. In other words, a planner or program operator may not be able to find out what he or she wants to know about a particular population in a particular geographic area. In some cases, the desirable data are not and will not be available in usable form, and a decision must be made about whether to spend staff time and resources on developing primary data or go on with larger area data on the assumption that the large area is not too unlike the small area and thus will serve to indicate the direction in which the supportive services plan should move, if not its final destination.

Another point in this planning process should be kept in mind: In the presence or absence of statistically reliable data, the informed judgment of an experienced employment and training program operator or social service provider is likely to be as valuable to the final outcome as any number series.

Identification and Description of the Universe of Potential Clients Who May Require Supportive Services

Within the geographical area of the program, the planner could collect and analyze the available data that indicate:

1. The number of unemployed persons in the labor market.
2. The personal characteristics of the unemployed, including age, sex, race, education, and family status.
3. The occupational experience of the unemployed.
4. The number of unemployed receiving public assistance.
5. The incidence of health conditions that may affect employment.
6. The number of service demands through social service providers.
7. The geographic location of the potential clients.

These data may be gathered from several sources. The U.S. Bureau of the Census, *Census of Population: 1970*, "General Population Characteristics" and "General Social

and Economic Characteristics," will provide data on the size, composition, distribution, and vital statistics of a population by place of residence in urban or rural areas for states, counties, standard metropolitan statistical areas, incorporated cities and towns, or larger (2,500 or more) unincorporated places. These data were compiled in 1970, but they can still serve as base data to be augmented by later information developed by other sources. Many states have planning offices or agencies at the state level which make yearly estimates on the size of the state's population by county or other smaller area designation. These estimates generally include the growth or decline of the population through natural increase (births minus deaths) and through in/outmigration.

The Employment Service in many states, in order to facilitate affirmative action planning on the part of employers, annually compiles and publishes data on the size and composition (sex and race) of the labor force by industry and occupation and on the last occupation of the unemployed. These data can provide a valuable clue to the condition of the local labor market in terms of entry level occupations and the unemployment levels of the unskilled and semi-skilled labor force. It can be generally assumed that relatively high levels of unemployment among less skilled workers will correlate with higher levels of demand for employment and training and supportive services. In addition, the unskilled or semi-skilled unemployed worker is less likely to have accumulated sufficient resources to overcome the effects of prolonged periods of unemployment, even with unemployment insurance and other forms of transfer payments. By the time many of these people reach the employment and training program, they have exhausted their own resources and can no longer provide for their own supportive services needs.

The Welfare Departments generally maintain some form of aggregated data on their case loads. These records can be a source of information regarding the structure of households and the level of service demands for health care, child care, and transportation. In addition, some welfare agencies may keep data pertaining to family or household income levels, which may then be compared with income data recorded by the Bureau of the Census for the same area.

After the relevant data have been gathered, they may be structured in any form that is usable to the planner and decision makers in terms of constructing hypotheses about the universe of clients that may require supportive services.

Identification, Description, and Assessment of Available Resources

From the hypotheses developed from the survey of the universe of potential clients, it is possible to develop a listing of potential supportive service needs. For example, if a significant portion of the potential client population consists of female heads of households with children under 15 years of age, it is likely that the availability of child care will be an important consideration in determining supportive service needs.

The next task would be to go into the community to determine the extent to which the needs suggested by the profile of the potential clients are being met. A reliable first source of information would be the directories of community resources compiled by various agencies, notably the United Fund (or United Way or Red Feather). The format of these inventories of resources can usually be followed or copied as other resources are discovered. Such an inventory might include:

- The services that are offered and for whom.
- The eligibility requirements.
- The geographic service area.
- Source and amount of funding.
- Program capacity, as well as total numbers of individuals served.
- General socio-economic characteristics of persons served (age, income, sex, race, and so on).

The inventory of resources could then be matched to the hypotheses of potential supportive service needs. The information gathered in this manner would be of a general nature; however, it could still provide the basis for important decisions yet to be made.

Determining Unmet Client Needs

From the comparison of the potential supportive service needs with the inventory of available supportive services, it should become obvious which services are not readily available in the community; however, many community resources are not easily identified. Thus, if time allows, the planner would want to personally interview several persons who are actively engaged in what are known as the "helping professions" before making the final determination that certain needs cannot be met through local resources. With these persons, the planner could review the tentative conclusions and determine whether other community resources which have not yet been identified are available.

Out of the process of comparing identified needs to available resources and the resulting indications of unmet and undermet supportive service needs should come the data from which the planner will be able to make recommendations. When the "universe of supportive service needs" and the "inventory of available services" have been substantially completed, a method for comparing and displaying the results should be developed. This comparison and display will provide an important tool for communicating the findings to decision makers and program operators.

These data can be presented in a variety of ways: A simple

"T" chart that lists "needs" on one side and "known resources" on the other; a flow chart with projected needs numbers "flowing" into known service level and capacity numbers; or a sophisticated matrix, which, unless carefully developed, may display everything and communicate nothing.

Determining the Feasibility of Developing Resources to Meet Unmet Needs

In order to decide what supportive services should be provided and at what level, some judgments have to be made about the ease with which identified unmet needs can be met, either through the employment and training program itself or through the program's support in developing additional community resources. At the same time that the planner is determining the feasibility of developing resources to meet unmet needs, hypotheses about the impact of not making provision for the service should be developed.

In making this determination, planners must base some judgments upon qualitative rather than quantitative data. For example, if an unmet need is legal services, the planner cannot determine the absolute cost of providing such services because exact needs at this point are not definable. However, the planner could discuss with the experts in the field (lawyers, economic opportunity staff members, bar association officials) the extent of the potential need and the costs involved in meeting this need. Alternative methods of delivering the service could also be explored and evaluated; e.g., hiring lawyers to be part of the employment and training staff, retaining a law firm to handle cases, providing funds to other agencies or governmental organizations so that they in turn could provide legal services.

Setting Priorities Among Unmet Needs

Setting priorities is essentially an analytical process. It is the point at which planners and decision makers assess the relative impact that meeting the unmet need will have upon program goals and objectives and thus upon the employability of potential program clients.

The information taken from the assessment of need, inventory of services, and "list" of unmet needs can be used to begin developing priorities:

1. Description of the unmet or undermet need:
   a. Narrative description of the nature of the current need.
   b. Magnitude of the unmet need.
2. Description of how much of the total need is being met by existing services:
   a. How much of the identified need can be met by existing srevices? (For example, 65 percent of low income female heads of households are receiving child-care monies from the welfare agency.)
   b. How many additional services would be necessary to meet the remaining need?

The following chart is one useful method of developing priorities:

Priorities (1)	Nature of Need (2)	Magnitude of Need (3)	Tangible or Stated Benefit From Meeting Need (4)	Cost of Meeting Need (5)
1.				
2.				
3.				

Priorities should reflect reality. Factors that may change the "ideal" priorities include:

- Previously established legislative mandates.
- Existing policies of state or local governments.
- Limitations on funding.
- The existence of other public or private dollars that can meet the need.
- The acceptability of giving one need priority over another (in terms of the perceptions of potential clients and other service providers, as well as the community as a whole).
- The existence or capability of agencies to provide the service.
- The validity or appropriateness of the program's involvement in this area.

Determining Supportive Service Levels

After priorities have been set, the planner can draw some conclusions about the supportive service needs of those clients for whom such program services can be provided cost effectively. These conclusions, along with the amount of monies available for services, provide a basis for projecting the maximum number of clients who could be served. The planner can determine which clients needing which supportive services can be expected to be successful in the employment and training program and from this make at least a tentative projection of the numbers of persons whom the program could hope to serve. For example, if a decision is made that clients will be served on a first come, first served basis, as long as they meet basic eligibility requirements, the concurrent decision must be made to lower the maximum number of clients to be served.

It is likely that, if the program decides to accept clients on a first come, first served basis, these clients will have a greater variety of supportive service requirements than will clients who are screened on the basis of being more "able and available." The more supportive services the program obligates itself to fulfill, the less money the program will have left to spend on training opportunities.

In determining the role of the program in providing supportive services to clients, the planners and decision makers will question how clients' problems will affect their employability. Certainly, the argument that all problems, internal and external, have the potential of negatively affecting employability is prevalent. However, one need only consider the characteristics of the employed population to realize that those who are employed also suffer from a variety of problems, which, if seen out of context, would predict only the inability of the person to function on the job.

6. SUMMARY: SOME CONCLUSIONS BY THE AUTHORS

Throughout the preceding discussion, we have attempted to minimize the reflection of our biases. We think we have been successful most of the time. It should be remembered that there are no comprehensive quantitative studies on the contribution supportive services make to participants in employment and training programs. Therefore, we think that our judgments and conclusions are as reasoned as any. However, we do feel that it is only fair to inform the reader that the following conclusions are only informed opinions and are based upon our own experiences as service providers for employment and training programs, as managers of such functions, and as consultants to and researchers of employment and training and social programs in various states.

Nothing in our experience or in the literature we reviewed suggests a "best way" to insure that supportive services do what they are intended to do. In fact, the debate on what supportive services can be expected to do continues. In view of this uncertainty, we feel that our views are appropriate, and we have no reservations in expressing them.

Supportive services should be provided only if it can be demonstrated that these services will lead to employment. There has been a tendency in programs to supply services because "they were the right thing to do and could not help but enhance employability." Many of these services were easier to provide than were skill training and actual placement. In the long run, however, the services were relatively expensive and, in addition, caused resentment among clients when the expectations raised could not be met.

At present it is difficult to determine just which supportive services may lead to employment. Only properly stratified statistical studies may yield results that are useful for determining how much and what kind of supportive services should be supplied, who should receive them, and when. Within the context of these comments, it is more fruitful to approach this problem from the perspective of identifying the conditions of employment or skill training that require resources beyond the capability of the program client and that can be *efficiently* supplied by the program. Efficiency in this context means that the additional cost to the program of providing the supportive service is less than or equal to the additional benefit to the program of supplying it. In this context, it is readily apparent that some services are efficient by this definition. For example, if a man is unable to attend his skill training class because his car pool driver is ill, a handful of bus tokens provided by the program may keep him in attendance. Increasing mobility may also insure that a client will be able to make on-site employer contacts or get to employment interviews.

Several of these incremental cost services, characteristically, are "one-time" services that resolve an immediate problem and enable a client to move toward an employment goal. These services include paying for haircuts, providing coins for pay phones, supplying vouchers or cash for having clothes cleaned or pressed, paying parking fines, buying steel-tipped work shoes or work uniforms, and so on. The criterion for ensuring that these services pay off and are therefore efficient is that they are provided for clients who are participating in a skill training program or actively seeking employment on a "seek-work-plan" or other regularized basis.

We admit that this is a narrow and "hard-nosed" approach to helping people, especially disadvantaged people, solve those problems that prevent them from entering the mainstream of American life and from obtaining the means to pursue their individual life goals and maintain their preferred individual life styles. However, an employment and training program is intended to help individuals become self-sufficient through *employment*, not to provide enrichment or self-improvement. For the most part, people prefer to take care of their own enrichment and self-improvement and will choose activities that are important to them rather than activities that are funded and "pushed" through social and employability programs, no matter how sincere the promise of success and future independence. As previously mentioned in the planning section of this monograph, many people are working under handicaps that we, the authors, would find difficult to overcome. These handicaps include not only health and family problems, but hours spent in commuting to jobs, inconvenient work hours, and unattractive working conditions. Yet, there are people who are obviously willing to work under these circumstances because they continue to do so by choice.

In our opinion, one of the primary failures of supportive services as they have been provided in the past is that, rather than serving an ancillary role to the main business of the program—employment—they can become a condition of participation. For example, the concern with adult literacy has forced literally thousands of adults into basic education

courses with the promise that the ability to read, write, and compute at some higher level would ensure them an opportunity to compete in the market place and get the job of their choice at wages higher than they had ever earned. In fact, this did happen for some. They were better off; they did suceed in skill training; they did get jobs they were happy with and which paid an amount of money they were willing to accept. However, we believe that the persons for whom this happened would have made it anyway, and the supportive services provided simply made it a little easier, which in these cases was reason enough to provide them. However, these cases are an infinitesimally small part of the numbers who were enrolled in basic education courses.

In our experience, the people who "failed" to improve their literacy skills failed because they saw no relationship between what they were supposed to be learning and their day-to-day struggle to live. They had never had jobs that required reading or writing, and they had no expectation of ever holding such jobs, even though they agreed that reading and writing were important to living a good life and getting a good job.

We do not mean to imply that this is the "fault" of the educators. They are in business to make literate those individuals who want to be literate, for any reason, at any age, and who are willing to pay the price for literacy—in this case, the time, money, and effort that might be spent doing something they want more than literacy. Our quarrel is with "educational" components that were established and operated in isolation, independent of and unattached to the skill training or placement components of the program.

Those basic education,ESL, or GED components that were provided concurrently with skill training or on-the-job training, and that were directly related to that training, appear to have enhanced the client's ability to obtain and hold a job in a particular occupation or industry.

There are others who share this view that supportive services must be dependent on the goals of the employment and training program. In a comprehensive manual concerning the productive employment of the disadvantaged, the authors state:

> Support services must be goal-oriented. Supervisors, instructors, trainers, and other support staff members should stress the practical and relevant—in relation to program objectives—when working with trainees, avoiding time-consuming exercises that bear no relation to those objectives. Whenever possible, support services should be coordinated with the skills training program, to minimize scheduling conflicts with the main goal of the training program, which is to provide the training required for regular production standards.[18]

By now it is evident that our biases are toward those supportive services that directly assist a client to obtain immediate employment; in this case, "immediate" means relative to long-term or chronic problems where a number of obstacles, including client motivation, must be taken care of before any training or placement activities can begin.

In general, our experience and our review of the literature concerning supportive services have persuaded us that the primary considerations in the decision on whether, why, and how to provide supportive services are as follows:

Consideration No. 1: Ensure that supportive services are provided concurrently with skill training or on-the-job experience. This is especially important if the service to be provided is an institutional service; i.e., basic education or subcontracted counseling services. An institutionalized supportive service has the unfortunate capability of becoming part of the goal in the mind of both the participant and the service provider.

Consideration No. 2: Since all "helping" agencies have programs and goals of their own, if the employment and training program wants to exercise any control over the outcome of the service, it is wiser to buy or trade for the service than to lament the proverbial "gift horse."

Consideration No. 3: Continually review the process of communication between the program and outside supportive service providers. Misunderstandings about why the service is being provided and what constitutes a successful service outcome can cause tempers to flare and clients to fail.

Consideration No. 4: Do not confuse the goals of supportive services with the final objective of the program—the employment of the client. It may be "high minded" to focus on making a better person out of each participant, but it is too expensive. In short, don't let supportive services run the program. (Caveat: Because supportive services are numerous and sometimes interesting and exciting, it may be tempting to make the provision of these services an unwritten goal of the program. Without concurrent employability development these services may lead only to "better" unemployed clients.)

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[18]Glaser and Ross, op. cit.,p. 79.

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37

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